

Volume 36 Number 9
JUNE 1954

Route to

School Life



◀ Our President—In Cap and Gown

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Education in Athletics

by Simon A. McNeely*

ATHLETICS, in the correct setting and under good leadership, provides a laboratory for fine human relationships and healthful personal development. Few people would disagree with this statement. "Correct setting" and "good leadership," however, are the key ideas. School leaders, parents, and other interested citizens need constantly to evaluate school athletic practices to insure full realization of educational outcomes.

The recently published statement of the Educational Policies Commission, *School Athletics—Problems and Policies*, should prove an invaluable guide to community leaders in improving and continuing sound school athletic programs. Beginning with a statement of "affirmations" which strongly supports athletics as an important part of the school's physical education program, the Commission makes several recommendations basic to educationally worthwhile sports participation. Among these are:

All children and youth should share in the benefits of athletic participation.

Programs [of organized games and sports] should be conducted by teachers on the regular school staff and should be under the control of school authorities.

Athletic games . . . should be played with emphasis on fun, physical development, skill and strategy, social experience, and good sportsmanship.

The core of the program at all levels should be athletic instruction and play for all pupils in regular classes in physical education . . . supplemented by games and sports that enlist participants on a voluntary basis.

Boys' interscholastic athletics should be governed by the same authorities that control other parts of the school program, at both local and state levels.

Local school authorities should give consistent support, in letter and in spirit, to the rules and standards developed by the several state high school athletic associations and by similar bodies. They should acquaint members of boards of education, sports writers, and other citizens with these rules and standards; develop community understanding of the reasons for them; and resist pressures for practices that would violate them.

Boards of education should establish policies for financial support of athletics that will free the interscholastic program from dependence upon gate receipts. School and community leaders should make every effort to finance athletics completely out of general school funds at the earliest possible date.

Boxing should be taboo at all school levels. . . . Ice hockey and tackle football should not be played below senior high school.

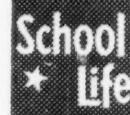
Interscholastic competition should be permitted only in

(Continued on page 114)

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Cover photograph: President Eisenhower at William and Mary College. Photograph taken by Charles P. Gorry, Associated Press.

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

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The New Frontiers

by Oliver J. Caldwell,
Assistant Commissioner
for International Education*

OUR GENERATION is in a position comparable to that of the children of Israel, who after 40 years of wandering in the wilderness, found themselves at last on the frontier of the Promised Land. They had grown accustomed to the hardships of the wilderness, but faced the future with fear and confusion. In this situation, Moses sent forth two groups of spies to examine the Promised Land.

One group came back and reported that the land was full of giants. They advised the children of Israel to take their flocks, their herds, and their tents and go back into the wilderness from which they had recently emerged.

But the second group of spies reported that it was a land of milk and honey, a paradise to be claimed by the children of Israel if they advanced with determination, with faith, and with courage.

So the children of Israel swept into the Promised Land.

Their faith was high and their courage was great; and they possessed the land. Out of that land in the years that followed came ideals and dreams which dominate a majority of the nations of the world.

Our generation also stands on the frontier of a Promised Land. The future for generations to come, not only of the American people, but of mankind, will be greatly influenced by the decisions we make.

Science has given to limited man access to almost infinite energies. For the first time, man has access to the very energies of creation. By their nature, these forces are also capable of destruction. Thus man

holds in his immature hands the potentialities either of creation or of destruction. This is a fact on which there can be little disagreement. However, what it means to us and to unborn generations is a matter yet to be determined.

There are those who tell us that man is inherently incapable of meeting the challenge of this new frontier. They would have you believe that man bears within himself the seed of destruction, that he is incapable of controlling himself, and therefore cannot control for creative purposes the energies which he is just beginning to understand.

I think too much has been said about the possibilities of destruction and the danger inherent in man's possession of the ability to utilize atomic and nuclear energies. I prefer to believe that our future, your future and that of your children, can be happier and better across the frontier and in our "Promised Land." I believe our frontier is one of hope and not of despair. Our problem is to identify the obstacles ahead of us, and to find ways to surmount them.

If we are to use effectively the great forces now available to us, and the new energies which we are only beginning to perceive, then each individual has an obligation to prepare himself with humility, determination, and courage, to accept and to utilize creatively these great forces of creation.

Across our frontier, we will find boundless possibilities for both good and evil, for destruction as well as creation. Actually, we face a variety of obstacles, and must advance with equal effectiveness on several fronts simultaneously toward a common objective. This objective must be the creation of a stable, peaceful society

based on a full utilization of all available resources, human, physical, and spiritual. The obstacles we face are the existing barriers to an effective utilization of our available resources.

We are faced by a unique intellectual challenge. There was a time when man's knowledge had finite boundaries. I recall reading of an Italian scholar during the Renaissance whose knowledge encompassed the entire field of man's intellectual achievement. This scholar challenged all comers to debate him on any one of several hundred theses. Presumably there was nothing worth knowing that this man did not know.

The intellectual vitality of our day resembles that of the Renaissance, but our rapidly expanding intellectual horizon has created a situation in which it is literally impossible for any individual to know everything, or even to know a great deal about a great many things. This fact is dramatically illustrated by the growth of the science of cybernetics, and the building of robot machines which can add, multiply, and carry out an infinite variety of mathematical operations with an efficiency and a speed which the individual human mind cannot approximate.

There is a serious danger in this situation of forcing overspecialization on the individual. We could become a society somewhat like an anthill in which each ant would have one job and know nothing about the general activities of the society of which he is a part. I think one of the principal challenges of our world to the individual is that he must not only achieve a fairly high degree of specialization to make him a useful member of society, but at the same time

*Address at Freshman Honors Convocation, Sweet Briar College, February 19, 1954.

achieve enough general knowledge to enable him to look with sympathy and understanding on what is going on about him. It is a principal function of what we call a liberal education to instill into the student this kind of intellectual breadth and sympathy.

Our physical frontiers are expanding faster than at any time in man's history. They seem to be expanding in every direction simultaneously. One direction of this expansion is inward, as science each year pushes forward the knowledge of the nature of matter, and of life itself.

But our physical horizon is also expanding outward into space. We stand on the verge of our greatest adventure. We are like the people of the days of Columbus who stood on the shores of western Europe looking westward, remembering the legend which described the lands beyond the sea, and speculating on the possibility of crossing that vast and turbulent expanse on the wings of the wind. So we stand today looking out at the firmament which tomorrow may be our home.

Adjustment to a changing and expanding universe poses a major challenge both to our system of education, and to the individual, who must rely largely on his education to equip him both for service to his society and for personal survival. There is serious need for immediate modifications in our curriculum. While creative changes have been taking place in both the content and the methods of American education, they lag far behind the changes in our environment.

Another, and one of the most serious challenges we face in this vast and exciting new universe, is the problem of getting along together. We must learn more about ourselves, and about the elements which tend to disrupt human society. Thus social science has a particular pertinence in our times. We have only begun to learn to understand ourselves and our society. More than ever before, man's appropriate study now is man.

But the key to everything is an appreciation of ethical responsibilities. We must have a vision of life bigger than ourselves, and bigger than the physical universe which we see around us. Without an ethical and religious motivation we face only chaos. We must aspire to something greater than ourselves. Without such aspiration we are restricted to a materialistic interpretation of

the expanding universe. Such an interpretation is devoid of principles adequate to control the energies at our fingertips. Without such aspirations and motivation, man is like a child playing with an atomic bomb.

The process of education probably is more important today than at any other time in man's history. I would suggest that educators have the following minimum obligation to their students:

1. They must equip them intellectually to understand the nature of the rapidly evolving universe. This is, of course, extraordinarily difficult to do. As a first step, they might begin to place less emphasis on a teaching of an array of generally disconnected facts, and more emphasis on a teaching of the basic principle which are the foundation of the constantly growing edifice of facts.

2. They should place more emphasis on instilling into their students an ability to understand man and his total worldwide society. This means getting away from the idea that our cultural heritage is first North American, and secondly European and Mediterranean. We live in and are part of a world. We cannot escape that fact.

3. They should place more emphasis on philosophical and spiritual values. The more the physical universe changes and expands in our sight, the more unchanging these values appear. Such values are essential to racial survival; they are the common ground on which all peoples of all races and faiths can meet to work together for their common welfare.

Yet the responsibility for conquering the new frontier we now see, and all the new frontiers of the future, rests primarily on the individual. Education can help us to meet these new opportunities, but cannot remove from us the responsibility for making decisions necessary for survival in a changing world, nor spare us the results of such decisions.

All of us face enormous new responsibilities. The nature of the "Promised Land" we are about to enter will be whatever we ourselves make it. Our future will be tragic, or brilliant and beautiful, according to how our generation meets the multiple challenges it faces. But if we go forward with faith, with determined courage, and with humility into the expanding universe around us, then we cannot fail.



Harry A. Jager

Harry A. Jager, Chief, Guidance and Pupil Personnel, Division of State and Local School Systems, died on May 8 in a Washington hospital at the age of 66.

Dr. Jager was a native of Providence, R. I., and a graduate of Brown University. He joined the staff of the Office of Education in 1937 and became the first chief of its guidance services in 1938. Before coming to the Office, he was for 25 years a teacher and principal of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools in rural and urban communities.

In 1948-49 Dr. Jager was a United States representative on vocational guidance for the International Labor Organization and helped prepare the Recommendation on Vocational Guidance for the 61 member nations. He was also chairman of the special committee on vocational guidance of the American Vocational Association.

At the time of his death Dr. Jager was chairman of the international relations committee of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. He had written many articles for professional magazines and had actively participated in conferences throughout the country to help plan better programs of guidance and pupil personnel for the Nation's youth.



Obligation To Serve

in Armed Forces



by Maj. Gen. Lewis B. Hershey, Director, Selective Service System

OUR FOREFATHERS in the early settlements along the Atlantic seaboard lived under constant threat of attack. The problem of survival was immediate and continuous. Each of the colonists was aware that he lived only because he and his associates were capable of self-defense.

The colonists never knew for any longer period than a day whether they were at peace or at war. The proximity of the Indians and the constant threat of attack resulted in the Thirteen Colonies' passing more than 600 laws providing for some form of compulsory military service.

Today the term "under threat of attack" takes on a meaning widely different from that of colonial times. Distances are greater today, but with the speed of airplanes being what it is and with the development of guided missiles and "pushbutton" warfare, we have no more idea of how far away the enemy is than the colonists had of how far away the Indians were.

If we are to survive in this new age, our youth must be awakened to the fact that citizenship carries along with it the obligation of service. Each youth must serve to protect the freedom our forefathers won for us through force of arms.

Some of the most common gripes teenagers make to parents and teachers today are: "I'm living in the shadow of the draft." "If it wasn't for the uncertainty, I could plan my life!" "I don't mind doing my duty, but why do they call on me?" "Why can't they call me right away, so I can get it over with?"

So far as "living in the shadow of the draft" is concerned, I suppose we all live under the shadow of our obligations, if we want to put it that way. A man with a family lives under the shadow of his obligations to support that family; his wife under the shadow of obligations to make a home for her husband and children.

Obligation to one's country is about the

same thing as obligation to one's family but on a different scale. And after all, it is not necessarily unpleasant to fulfill an obligation and it is not always unpleasant to be under a shadow.

As for uncertainty, there isn't very much uncertainty about what the future holds for today's teen-ager. He must plan to serve at least 2 years, if he is physically fit, in the Armed Forces.

The obligation to serve in the Armed Forces of the United States is clearly set forth in the selective service law. With very few exceptions, the law places the liability for service on all males between the ages of 18½ and 26, with liability extended to 35 for those who are deferred. But the obligation is something more than an obligation to a law. The obligation is to the Nation, to home and family, to one's self.

Why do "they pick on him?" For the same reason that upward of 2 million have been "picked on" since 1950 and more than 10 million were "picked on" during World War II; these figures do not include the 6 million who enlisted before they could be "picked on."

"Why don't they call me now, so I can get it over with?" That's an easy one. Any registrant can go to any local board and volunteer for immediate induction. It will send him on the next call. He need not wait his turn to be called.

When he comes home after fulfilling his obligation of 24 months' active duty, he'll be confronted by a generous government, ready and willing to finance a large part of his college education.

For the past 15 years the safety of our country has been in jeopardy. Looking ahead we can see nothing but a prolonged period of tension which will force us to devote a large portion of our resources to building and maintaining an adequate defense of our country. Certainly never in modern times have the American people

had to live through such a prolonged period of watchfulness and preparedness, just to insure that the system of government will survive.

This, of course, is part of the price we have to pay for achieving maturity as a nation and succeeding to the leadership of a free world. We can go ahead and lead the free world only if the youth of our Nation willingly accept their responsibility, serve willingly, and understand why they are serving.

One of the difficulties facing our Nation today is the attitude of our citizens toward service in the Armed Forces. Many young people are not taught in the home and in our educational institutions why they must serve in the Armed Forces. They should be imbued with the richness of the heritage they have. This job should be accomplished in the home and in our schools. I do not believe the Armed Forces should have the job of teaching a man anything other than how to become a seasoned soldier and how to survive on the field of battle.

A free society is not possible and has never been possible without men willing to fight to gain it and having gained it being ready and willing to sacrifice to protect and keep it. This is as true today as it was when our forefathers fought for our independence.

The educational institutions throughout our land can do a great service to the Nation by continuously exerting every effort to imbue our youth with the history of America and a belief in the things we have. They should be taught the truth about the constant fight their ancestors waged to gain the freedom they enjoy today. This movement to educate our youth and awaken them to the obligations of citizenship must start at the bottom, in the home and the school, not at the top, with the Federal Government.



Teacher demonstrating physics experiment to senior class in Camlica Girls High School, Uskudar, Istanbul Province. Standing to the right, Ellsworth Tompkins, Melahat Emirgil (Ministry of Education interpreter), and Muhittin Akdik, superintendent of schools, Istanbul.

Questions and Answers

Turkish Youth and Their High Schools

by Ellsworth Tompkins, Specialist for Large High Schools

STUDENTS in Turkish high schools are eager to learn about American high-school boys and girls. They want to know what subjects American students study in high school, how they dress, what sports they engage in, and whether coeducation is common. In addition, they ask questions about teachers and high-school buildings. There is no doubt that Turkish high-school youth really want to know more about American youth. A major reason for their curiosity is the conviction that Turkey and America are going to be even closer partners in the world and that the destiny of the new Turkey is closely tied in with the welfare of the Free World.

In many ways high-school students in Turkey are similar to their American counterparts. But the schools they attend are less similar. Turkish students want to know whether American students are interested in them and how much they know about them. Perhaps a few questions and answers will point up some of the characteristics of Turkish high-school students and their school environment.

Are Turkish students interested in sports and activities?

Yes. All high schools have teams in soccer—their main sport—and in outdoor volleyball, which is more popular in Turkey than in this country. Their recreational activities include table tennis, track, and gymnastics. School clubs are common in foreign correspondence, stamp collecting, foreign language, music, art, and wrestling. Some of the schools have student councils. All of them have boy scout troops. Most schools have school stores, called "kooperatifs," which sell paper, pencils, candy, and other sweets.

When do they take part in these activities?

On Wednesday afternoon and Saturday afternoon. Turkish high schools are in session 6 days a week, with the exception of Wednesday and Saturday afternoons after 1 p. m. and all day Sunday.

Are the activities coeducational?

No. With few exceptions high schools are not coeducational. Boys go to one high school and girls go to another. Faculties, however, are coeducational; many men teachers teach in girls' high schools and many women teachers teach in boys' high schools.

Student voting in booth for student council president in Ataturk Girls High School, Istanbul. ARKADAS! means member. "7-A" signifies last term of high school, or senior.



Girl junior police directing traffic on Fındıklı Caddesi (Fındıklı Street) in front of Ataturk Girls High School, Istanbul. Notice that she wears white gloves and white belt.



Elementary-school girls selecting reading materials in National Library, Ankara, Turkey; Adnan Otuken, director.



Do boys and girls work after school in Turkey?

No. Practically no opportunities exist for after-school or Saturday afternoon part-time jobs. Turkish students are amazed to learn that many American boys and girls work at gainful employment after school hours.

Are there homerooms in Turkish high schools?

No. When an attempt was made to explain the homeroom setup common in most American high schools, Turkish students as well as teachers had difficulty understanding the idea of the homeroom.

How are students promoted in Turkish high schools?

By grades, which they call "sinif," and not by subject as is customary in our high schools. Pupils in Turkish high schools are scheduled by classes rather than individually. When they heard that American students were scheduled individually for their school programs, they expressed amazement and wondered how such a complicated process could actually work.

Do Turkish students study each major subject every day of their school week?

No. Their studies require various numbers of hours a week. For example, in the first grade of senior high school (corresponding to our Grade X) a student takes the following subjects: Turkish literature, 5 hours; Turkish history, 2 hours; geography, 2 hours; mathematics, 5 hours; chemistry, 3 hours; biology and health, 3 hours; foreign language, 5 hours; drawing, 1 hour; music, 1 hour; physical education, 1 hour; military tactics, 1 hour; supervised study, 3 hours; making a total of 32 hours a week.

What foreign languages do Turkish students study?

English, French, and German. About 65 percent of all junior and senior high school students take English, which is taught by the direct, or active, method. Probably a greater percentage of students would study English if there were enough capable teachers. Classes in English are consequently likely to be large, sometimes having as many as 50 or 55 students. Spanish, Italian, and Greek are not offered in public schools. A few Turkish high schools give

all instruction in English (Ankara Koleji), and one conducts instruction mainly in French (Istanbul Galatasaray Lisesi).

How long are the daily periods in Turkish high schools?

One hour, consisting of 45 minutes of class recitation and 15 minutes of free recess. When the weather permits, the students go outside of the building to saunter on the campus. Otherwise, they take their hourly recess of 15 minutes in the building. When Turkish students were told that American high-school pupils have only a few minutes for passing between classes, they asked how they found time to relax between classes.

Do the students receive a certain number of credits for each subject taken?

No; like students in most foreign countries, the student receives no point credit for subjects in Turkish schools. He does not have to acquire a total number of units to be graduated. Instead, he must pass examinations at the end of each school year and at the end of the high-school course.

Are all students in Turkish high schools day students?

Probably the majority of them are, but there are many boarding students. Galatasaray Senior High School in Istanbul (founded in 1868 in the building it still occupies), for example, has hundreds of boarding students, who live in dormitories in the school building and eat all meals in the school dining hall. Boarding students have supervised study each day, except Saturday night and Sunday according to this schedule: 6:30 to 7:30 a. m.; 5:30 to 7 p. m.; and 7:30 to 9 p. m.

Do they have junior high schools in Turkey?

Yes. All the senior high schools in Turkey are junior-senior high schools offering 7 years of study. There are many 3-year junior high schools existing separately; that is, without a senior-high-school combination.

Are there many small high schools in Turkey?

Very few. High schools, particularly senior high schools, are found in urban places and are large schools. Few high schools enroll fewer than 400 students, and many have more than 1,000 students.

Do Turkish high school buildings look like American high schools?

There is little outward similarity, but classrooms are quite similar. High-school buildings in Turkey are usually of stone or concrete construction, painted white. Turkish school have an extensive campus, which is called "bahce" or garden; the grounds around their high schools are more spacious than those surrounding most American high schools. Furthermore, they are attractively landscaped. The Adana (population 150,000) Commercial High School in southern Turkey has a grove of oranges and lemons on the school campus; the fruit may be eaten by the students at will.

Are Turkish high school pupils earnest students?

Indeed. They are attentive to their studies, earnest about their education, and diligent. The Republic of Turkey grants scholarships for university study to high-standing secondary-school students; it also sends many students to study at universities in America. This year over 900 Turkish students are being maintained at American universities by the Ministry of Education at the expense of the Turkish Government. Turkish high-school youth strive to receive such high honors.

How do Turkish high school boys and girls dress?

Outside of school, just as American boys and girls do, except that one finds no blue jeans. In elementary school (5 years), both boys and girls dress in a school uniform—black cotton with white collar; in junior and senior high school, boys wear regular street dress and girls wear a school uniform.

Where do Turkish boys and girls get their ideas of American youth?

Mainly from seeing the "Sinema" (movies), which show American films with Turkish subtitles. The younger boys in elementary school know a lot about Texas, Hopalong Cassidy, and Roy Rogers.

These questions and answers give only a meager picture of Turkish youth and the high schools they attend. If you are interested in more detailed information about the topic, read *Education in Turkey*, Bulletin 1952 No. 10 (obtainable from the Office of Education), or write to Mr. Emin Hekimgil, Turkish Educational Attaché, Empire State Building, New York, N. Y., for free illustrated booklets.

Education of Negroes:^{*}

Some Factors Relating to Its Quality

by Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner
and Joseph H. Douglass, Special Consultant in Intergroup Education

WHAT A PERSON does and the way he does it are the result of the interplay of many factors over his entire lifespan. Every stimulus-response situation, in every phase of his life, is influenced not only by the individual's innate capacities but also by the facts he learns and by the habits, attitudes, and ideals he acquires from the value systems of the society in which he lives. The patterns of behavior growing out of these stimulus-response situations largely define the roles which the individual assumes in society. The degree to which this process results in wholesome personality development depends on the extent to which the individual participates freely and voluntarily in his own adaptive experiences.

The significance here of the principle indicated above lies in the fact that education is an important phase of social adaptation. It is the outcome not only of schooling but also of the experiences in the home, at play, at work, in the church, and on the street. Thus it is seen, as suggested in the preceding articles of this series, that the educational process is not an isolated phenomenon.

The quality of education among Negroes, therefore, has been and will continue to be influenced by a variety of factors. The three selected for discussion here are the social, economic, and scholastic. One measure of this quality is the general cultural level which Negroes have attained, and is concerned with the first two factors to be discussed. Another measure is the result reached on achievement and mental tests which will be concerned with the third factor. These factors are not mutually exclusive, as is indicated in the three preceding articles of the series. Their interrelationships should be constantly kept in mind by

*Editor's note.—This article which was written prior to the Supreme Court decision on school segregation, has special pertinence for school systems planning a program of desegregation and integration.

all persons interested in the successful integration of Negroes into the general stream of American life. Those concerned especially with the integration of Negroes into the educational life of the Nation will need to consider carefully the matters discussed here.

Social Factors

Although the South is rapidly becoming industrialized, for many generations it suffered from the evils of a colonial system, including poverty, insecurity, mobility, lack of initiative, poor housing, dietary deficiency, lack of sanitation, poor health and disease, and cultural deprivation.¹ It is in such an environment that the majority of Negroes in the United States have lived. The combined impact of the colonial and slave pattern forced Negroes into a caste-like system based on race and color. The effects of their situation limited the participation of Negroes in the major avenues of personal and social expression in American society and relegated the group to a disprivileged and subordinate position.²

The result of these limitations, in large measure, has been to release Negroes from the obligations and responsibilities of citizenship. This meant that they had to adjust to a social structure which held aloft the

ideals of democratic life, but which denied them avenues of democratic expression, thus creating a double and somewhat conflicting set of adjustment patterns.³ The effect of this anomalous position has had serious implications for their personality development.

In terms of the adjustment of children, the carryover of the effects of discrimination have serious impact upon the family structure and environment within which the Negro child must grow. If parents belong to a socially inferior group, and themselves are poorly adjusted, the child is quite likely to become the replica of the frustrated parent. Consideration of such conditions becomes of great significance to teachers, who are responsible for educating Negro children for participation in a democratic society.⁴ Add to these outside pressures, those internal ones of family disorganization, broken homes, working mothers, overcrowding, and lack of the simple ordinary home conveniences, and it is seen that the average Negro child progresses toward maturity against great odds.

Economic Factors

In general, two types of economic opportunity are available to Negroes. They might find employment in the white occupational world, or within the segregated Negro world.⁵ In either case, as a result of limited education and other factors, such as discrimination, the group in most instances is relegated to the lower economic rungs. The effects of low income, insecure employment, and associated factors combine to

¹ Brown, Ira Corine, *Socio-Economic Approach to Educational Problems*, National Survey of the Higher Education of Negroes, Misc., No. 6, Vol. 1, Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1942, p. 103.

² Kardiner, Abram, and Ovesey, Lionel, *The Mark of Oppression*, New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1951, p. 61.

³ Brown, op. cit., p. 19.

⁴ Kardiner and Ovesey, op. cit., p. 302 ff.

⁵ Brown, op. cit.

place severe handicaps upon the group. Poor housing, lack of home ownership, restricted and slum environments, poor standards of health, and high mortality rates may largely be traced to the economic position of the group.

Economic necessity frequently causes irregular school attendance of Negro children, and sometimes causes them to stop school altogether as soon as the legal age of compulsory attendance is passed. According to the 1950 census, nonwhite youth go to work at an earlier age on the average than white youth, who obtain more years of schooling before entering upon gainful employment.

Although during the decade from 1940 to 1950, Negroes made some gains in skilled occupations, Hope says that about one-half of the Negro men and two-thirds of the Negro women engaged in nonagricultural pursuits are employed below the semiskilled level, while only one-sixth of the whites are employed on this level.⁶

The median family income of Negroes in 1949 was \$1,650; that for whites, \$3,232. Mitchell and Holden have shown that only 4 percent of the Negro group had money resources of \$5,000 or more, and only 10 percent had as much as \$3,000 or more in 1949. The corresponding percents for whites were, respectively, 21 and 44.⁷ They also point out that 6 out of 10 urban Negro families and 7 out of 10 rural Negro families were in the low-income category (incomes of less than \$1,000); whereas only 3 out of 10 white families had incomes under \$1,000. In the South, where the major problem being discussed here is found, three-fourths of all Negro urban families had an income of less than \$2,000 in 1949. Of the rural families, 92 percent had a cash income of \$1,000 or less.⁸

According to Ginzberg and Bray, in 1940, 60 percent of the poorly educated and illiterate persons in the Nation were in the South. One out of eight white workers had completed less than 5 years of schooling. For Negroes, the ratio was 2 out of 5. In spite of the progress that had been made, the South still had, in 1940, 90 percent of the poorly educated Negroes; and one-half

of the Negro workers in the South had less than 5 years of schooling.⁹

As rapid advances in the Nation increase the number and variety of demands upon the individual, the tempo in closing the cultural, economic, and educational gap between the races should be stepped up. This becomes increasingly significant in light of the need of the Nation to utilize its human resources to the maximum.

Scholastic Factors

During the past decade great progress has been made in the education of Negroes in the South, as was indicated in a previous article of this series. However, in another article of the series, it was shown that prior to a decade ago the schooling of Negroes was quite inadequate in comparison with that for whites. And the level of schooling of whites in the South was far below that of the Nation as a whole. In terms of the number of children to be educated, the lack of money, and the general devastation following the Civil War, the South faced a staggering educational task¹⁰ for white children, not to mention the task of educating approximately a million recently emancipated Negro children.

The Negro Separate School

For many years, for hundreds of thousands of Negro children, there were simply no schools available. As late as 1930, there were approximately a million Negro youth of high school age out of school. At least a half million had no high schools in 230 counties in which they represented one-eighth or more of the population.¹¹ Studies have shown that when schools existed, many pupils were compelled to travel great distances to and from school, either on foot or in their own vehicles.¹²

A high percentage of the rural schools were held in churches, lodge halls, and cabins. Many of the public buildings in which schools operated were in a dilapidated condition with poor equipment, or lack of it altogether. Adequate drinking water, heating, and toilet facilities were frequently absent; and the general sur-

roundings of the schools were ugly and unwholesome. The schools in general were characterized by short-school terms, limited curriculums and extracurricular activities, large classes, few textbooks, poorly trained and poorly paid teachers, and inadequate supervision. It was not surprising, therefore, to find poor attendance, due not only to the condition of the schools, but also to the lack of enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws, and the poor economic status of Negro families. Many of the conditions mentioned here applied, in a lesser degree, to schools for Negroes in certain urban areas.

With reference to higher education, it might be observed that ". . . few Negroes, in comparison with whites, go to college. Primarily, it is poverty that keeps them out; but poor elementary preparation is also a factor. The 1940 census figures showed that only 1.3 percent of Negroes had a 4-year college education as compared with 5.4 percent of native-born whites and 2.4 percent of foreign-born whites. . . . Of the estimated 75,000 Negroes in college in 1947, 85 percent were attending 105 segregated schools."¹³

Certain of these above-mentioned conditions are rapidly changing, but they did prevail rather generally for many years, and conditioned the behavior of millions of adults in civilian life as well as in World Wars I and II. They also had a deleterious effect on mental test and educational achievement scores of Negro youth who migrated to other parts of the country. Needless to say that the same effect would be found among any low economy group, since scientific studies show that in general test results are functions of environmental conditions rather than of racial characteristics.

Illiteracy Among Negroes

One of the accumulated effects of the inadequate schooling of Negroes has been their high rate of illiteracy. Much progress has been made in this also, as is indicated by a reduction from about 95 percent at Emancipation to approximately 10 percent now. However, nearly one-third of the adult Negroes are still functionally illiterate (have not advanced beyond the 4th grade).

(Continued on page 143)

⁶ Hope, John, "The Employment of Negroes in the United States by Major Occupation and Industry," *Journal of Negro Education*, Vol. XXII, Summer 1953, No. 3, pp. 321.

⁷ Mitchell, George S., and Holden, Anna, "Money Income of Negroes in the United States," *Journal of Negro Education*, cited, pp. 334 ff.

⁸ Ibid., p. 337.

⁹ Ginzberg, Eli, and Bray, Douglas W., *The Uneducated*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1953, p. 36.

¹⁰ Caliver, Ambrose, *Secondary Education for Negroes*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 7.

¹¹ Caliver, Ambrose, *Availability of Education to Negroes in Rural Communities*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 12.

¹² Ivy, A. C., and Ross, Irwin, *Religion and Race*, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 153, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, New York, 1949, p. 18.

Steps To Meet Pressing Problems

In American Education—A Graphic Presentation

Chart 1.—State and White House Conferences on Education

Within the past few years there has been a great upsurge of citizen interest and concern about education in this country. The doubling of enrollment in PTA's and the development of local citizen advisory groups from 1,000 in 1950 to more than 8,000 at present are expressions of this interest. Many other indications could be cited. These have grown out of the recognition, by increasing numbers of citizens, of such school needs as housing and financing of teachers' salaries.

Citizen groups in towns and cities can get together easily and frequently. They can get the facts, study them along with the educators, arrive at reasonable plans of action, and then work to convince others to favor the action program. The result has been approval of bond issues for school building and increased salary schedules in thousands of communities.

But certain conditions are impeding progress. Some of these are:

Limitations in financing local school districts almost exclusively through property taxation;

Limitations on the rate of taxation for school purposes;

Maximum ceilings on bonded indebtedness;

Difficulties in securing teachers because State legislatures control budgets for teacher education facilities;

Limitations on freedom to reorganize school districts because of State laws;

Inequities raising local assessed valuations, unless these are raised generally throughout the State.

These factors indicate that essential action on meeting school needs can be taken most effectively at the State level.

S. 2723 provides the machinery for citizens in each State to develop the kind of educational program they want and need by:

- Changing property assessments;
- Changing limitations on taxes and bonds;
- Reorganizing inefficient school districts;
- Expanding the facilities for higher education;
- Attracting capable teachers; and by
- Providing State aid for school construction.

Each State conference would develop solutions to problems by:

—Bringing together a small group of representative citizens and educators to plan and prepare the materials for the larger citizen-educator conference.

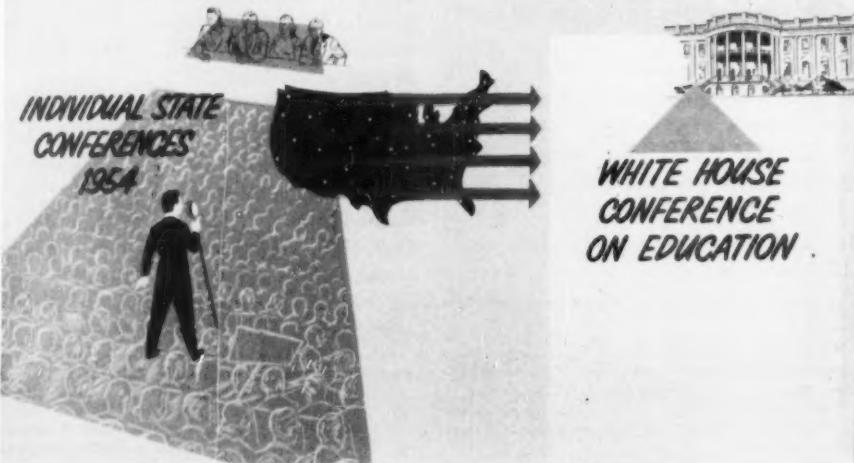
—Studies of local and State problems in education in the light of the facts so that study and discussion lead to

—Mobilizing resources to solve the problems.

Thus study and action would intermesh to meet the long-range problems ahead. The conference approach would expedite State and local action by involving the citizens as central figures—for the citizens will, in the last analysis, decide the quality and quantity of education.

It is expected, of course, that lay citizens and educators would meet together. They would decide what is needed to be done and

STATE AND WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES ON EDUCATION



then how to do it—across the board—by giving thought not only to the urgent problems of today but to those which face us ahead.

In summary, we believe that the pattern of citizen-educator cooperation on the local level is the soundest course. We believe that the Federal Government should assist and encourage the States to bring together representative citizen-educator groups to work out such action programs.

The White House Conference would serve a complementary and a somewhat different purpose. It would:

—Emphasize the importance of education to the national well-being;

—Report on the progress being made in the several States;

—Summarize the resources available and needed to keep American education operating at the level essential for national security and well-being;

—Demonstrate clearly what the citizens of the 48 States can do and want to do to meet their educational needs;

—Indicate whether citizens wish greater or less Federal support or participation in various phases of education;

—Give great impetus to the speedup in educational efforts needed in these coming years throughout the country;

—Show citizens the nationwide significance of local schooling.

I have no illusions that the White House Conference would solve the problems of education in this country, but I believe it can be very important and helpful.

S. 2723 appears to provide a practical and badly needed impetus by the Federal Government. It also would provide evidence—not now available—as to whether our citizens believe that the Federal Government should maintain its present relationships to education, do more, or do less.

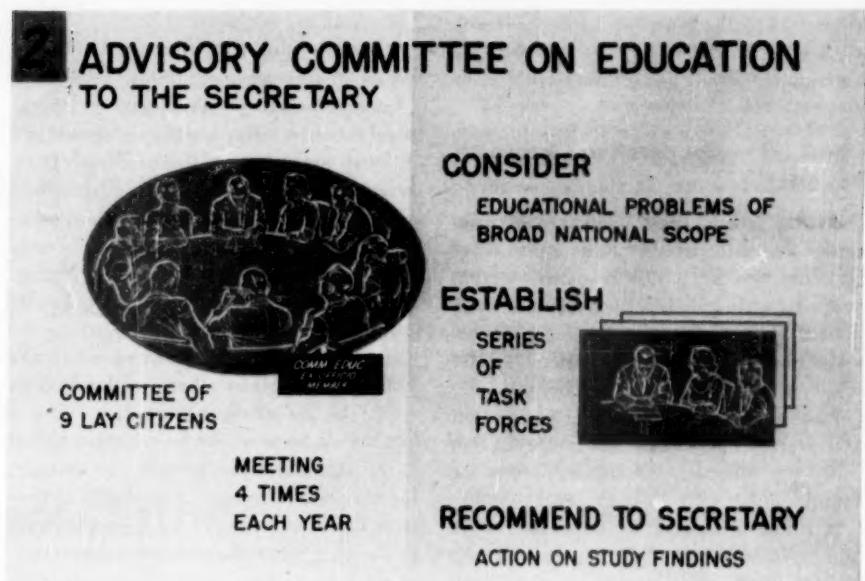
Chart 2.—Advisory Committee on Education

The problems which the Advisory Committee might consider are many. For example, the Committee might consider such matters as:

—The role of the school in reducing juvenile delinquency;

—Illiteracy, particularly in relation to selective-service rejections;

—The education of children with special abilities;



—The education of children with mental and physical handicaps;

—The education of children of migratory workers;

—The education of teachers.

These are but a few educational problems of national significance. In each area, there has been some research on aspects of the problem. Communities and States could be much more effective in dealing with these problems if a task force, under competent professional leadership, were to analyze and bring together the findings of researches already made, were to define problems needing immediate study, and were to make such studies. They could set forth authoritative conclusions as to what is known about the problem, what needs to be known, and what seem to be reasonable lines of action for individuals, schools, public and private agencies. Such task-force work might properly take 2 or 3 years.

The Committee's analysis might result in

the conclusion, for example, that the problem of the education of the children of migratory workers would be appropriate for study because of the complexity of the problem, its interstate implications, its national importance, and the lack of accurate studies in the field. Research would involve those concerned: Local and State authorities, teachers, schools, and boards of education, labor and employer groups, social welfare agencies, and others. Such study would establish facts which the Committee would analyze and upon which it would base its recommendations to the Secretary. Some of these would doubtless be matters upon which the Department could act through its constituents: The Office of Education, the Children's Bureau, and so on. Probably more of them would involve action which local and State groups should take.

The cost of such studies as the Committee might recommend would depend on their

The three charts illustrating this article were used by Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare at congressional hearings and at various meetings of organizations. They illustrate three major steps toward the solution of pressing problems in American education. These steps are: (1) State and White House Conference on Education to foster nationwide understanding of the problems of education and to mobilize resources for local, State, and Federal action; (2) a National Advisory Committee to make available the advice and recommendations of outstanding citizens; and (3) cooperative research in education to stimulate solutions to educational problems of national significance.

School Life is pleased to publish these charts and parts of the Commissioner's statements for its readers.

scope. One of the functions of the Committee would be to consider proposed study plans and budgets for recommendation to the Secretary.

Chart 3.—Cooperative Research Projects

At the present time, the Office of Education has no legislative authority to enter into contracts for jointly financed research projects with colleges, universities, State departments of education, local school systems, and nonprofit organizations. Joint efforts with such groups are of basic importance because it is in these agencies that able research personnel and resources that could not otherwise be enlisted are to be found.

A prime advantage of cooperative work with agencies in the field is that such procedure avoids the centralization of staff and facilities in Washington.

There are many areas in the field of education in which cooperative research holds out great promise for increased economy and efficiency.

Examples of research areas in which studies might be undertaken to improve school efficiency are:

1. Costs of school and college buildings.
2. Business procedures in schools and colleges.
3. School district reorganization.
4. Adequate staffing of teaching, engineering and other "shortage" professions.

5. Teaching methods.

6. Relationships of community health and social agencies to community programs.

General practice with respect to educational research today usually involves study of local problems by those directly concerned at the local level. This procedure is sometimes wasteful because many matters of local concern are, in fact, common to other groups across our Nation. Too often only those concerned locally profit from their research. Enlarging the scope of a local or State study so as to make its findings usable by others in other regions would be an efficient procedure. But a locality or State would be reluctant to put in the added cost just to make the research for demonstration more useful on a nationwide basis. For example, Minnesota may be studying more effective use of the services of teachers. Many other States may share the same general concern, but the particulars of their respective problems may be sufficiently different to render the Minnesota findings inapplicable for their purposes.

This bill would make possible contributions of funds from the Office of Education and the assistance of staff members of the Office of Education who are familiar with areas which require study—to the end that research and surveys of general interest be enlarged as appropriate to make them widely useful.



Raymond W. Gregory

Dr. Raymond W. Gregory, for many years a leader in the field of vocational education, died at his home at the age of 60 on June 2 after a heart attack.

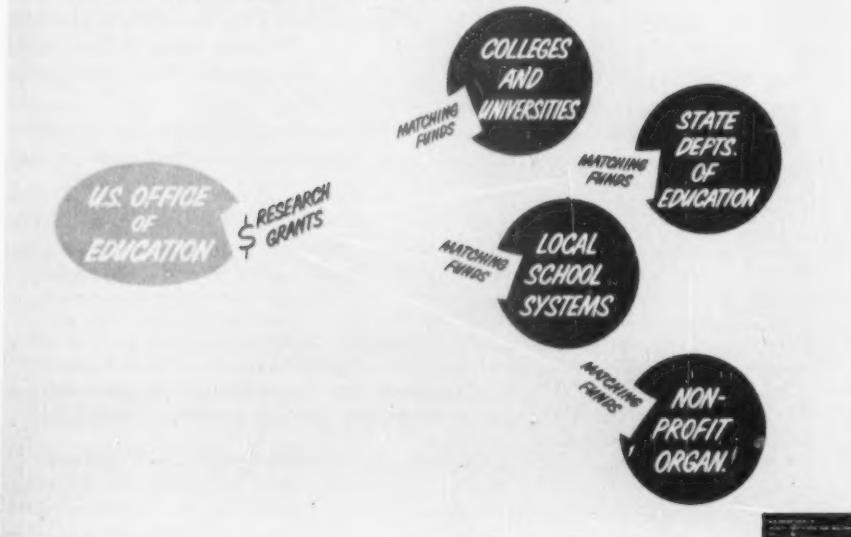
Dr. Gregory, special assistant to the Commissioner of Education, had recently returned from Korea where he had served as director of a special mission which had studied the vocational education needs and facilities of that country.

Formerly assistant commissioner for vocational education, Dr. Gregory had the responsibility of administering the national program of vocational education authorized by the Smith-Hughes and George-Barden Acts. A member of the Office of Education staff since 1936, he first served as a specialist in agricultural education. During the World War II period he administered the food production war training program which enrolled a million persons in 15,000 rural communities.

In 1952 Dr. Gregory was chairman of the United States delegation to the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education at the University of Maryland. He also served as a consultant on educational problems to various other countries.

Dr. Gregory was editor of the American Vocational Association Journal from 1928 to 1932. He was an active member of the American Vocational Association, National Education Association, American Farm Bureau Association, the American Legion, and Purdue University Alumni Association.

3 COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROJECTS TO STUDY EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS



Coordinating and Improving Instructional Services in Growing School Districts

by C. O. Fitzwater, County and Rural School Administration

THE COORDINATION and improvement of instructional services is a challenge to educational leadership. Especially is this true in growing school systems. This becomes more readily apparent when we examine the reasons why many school systems are growing. Their growth results from three major causes.

The most frequently mentioned cause, which has affected school systems almost everywhere, is the impact of increasing birth rates over the past several years. Evidence of the magnitude of this impact is furnished by Office of Education estimates indicating that more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions of elementary pupils and more than a quarter million secondary pupils are enrolled in school this year than last.

Another cause—population mobility with a strong tendency to concentrate in and around larger centers—has had and is continuing to have a heavy impact on school systems in urban and suburban communities, particularly the latter. The growth of suburban communities, perhaps “mushrooming” would be a better term, is in many instances nothing short of startling.

Consider the effect on school officials when a sudden influx of several thousand

families—the parents young, most of them with school-age or pre-school-age children, and most of them planning to have more—settles in a quiet, uncrowded, rural countryside locality, until then relatively unaffected by the influence of the city nearby. A recent statement by a county superintendent in a rapidly growing area illustrates the point:

... The mass population shifts that are now in evidence appear to be of a more permanent character. [These people] are moving to Contra Costa County to live—to establish homes, to build communities, to raise their families. . . . The emergency that we face now is not to be met with temporary measures. Ours is now the long-range planning. . . . The announcement that there is to be a community of 8,000 homes built in an area now primarily devoted to stock raising and fruit growing illustrates the opportunities, as well as the responsibilities, that Contra Costa County communities have. . . . This illustration is only a more dramatic example of conditions that have become all but universal in Contra Costa County.¹

A third cause is local school district reorganization, which during the past 5 years has resulted in reducing the total number of districts by almost a third. Although

most redistricting takes place in rural situations, it is becoming increasingly common in urban and suburban localities.

Whenever reorganization happens, improvement of instructional services becomes a matter of crucial importance. Obviously, this is as it should be. Other benefits may be realized, but the important outcome is better schools, provided with the array of specialized services necessary for making instruction most effective.

However, some growing school districts, including many of those enlarged through reorganization procedures, are still too small to provide all the specialized services that are needed. In such cases the role of the intermediate district, typically the county, takes on additional importance. Thus, there is a growing trend for intermediate districts to provide the specialized services that local districts are unable to provide for themselves effectively and economically. Moreover, the scope and quantity of these specialized services is likewise growing. This is especially true in the more densely populated counties in and near metropolitan areas.

Teamwork Processes

However, the major issue is not so much what type of district should be providing specialized services as it is a question of how any district, large enough to do so, can provide such services most helpfully. In other words, the processes employed and the human relationships involved are of primary importance.

The most productive processes, and certainly the most effective relationships, are developed and maintained when everyone concerned has a hand in helping to set the conditions for their nurture. This does not mean that everyone in a school system should have a direct responsibility in all decision-making activities. What it does mean is that there are areas of action in the realm of decision making for everyone.

Moreover, these areas for decision-making activities are not fenced off and isolated from one another. They are interrelated. Thus, the areas of decision making by the school board are interrelated with those of the superintendent, the central office staff specialists, the school principals, and the teachers. Likewise, decisions made by teachers are interrelated with decisions made by everyone else having responsibility in the school system.

¹ Contra Costa County School Bulletin, March 1954, Martinez, Calif.

Not only that, but this interrelatedness does not constitute a hierarchy of responsibilities that can be neatly charted and arranged in the order of their importance. To be sure, some are of broader scope than others and affect more people. But in the final analysis, these broader responsibilities exist to render teaching more effective.

Moreover, the interrelatedness of all responsibilities makes them interdependent. This interdependence, when viewed forthrightly and realistically and implemented in that spirit, makes the operation of a school system a teamwork process.

This point of view holds for any type of school system, whether large or small, rapidly growing or not growing at all. Likewise, it is applicable to the entire range of activities involved in the operation of a school system. Most certainly, it holds true for coordinating and improving instructional services.

Number of Reasons

However this task, it is not the only problem which demands attention, although in one way or another it is related to all of them. Increasing enrollments require construction of additional classrooms if short-changing of educational opportunities of the pupils is to be avoided.

Likewise, additional teachers must be recruited in this period of short supply, particularly qualified elementary teachers. Frequently this problem is so great that it is no longer a question of recruiting only those fully qualified but of filling vacancies with the best people available who are not fully qualified.

Coupled with such problems is that of raising additional funds to meet increased costs. It is a well-known fact that increasing school enrollments are not usually accompanied by commensurate increases in the value of property on which local taxes may be levied to pay increased school costs. As a result, the financial strain often increases greatly.

Not only are problems such as these of great magnitude but by their acuteness they sometimes claim the limelight to such an extent that others, also important, are in danger of being left in the shadows. Perhaps this is understandable. But increasing enrollments—whether resulting from increased birth rates, migration of families to the community, school district reorganiza-

tion, or a combination of these factors—bring other problems, challenges, and opportunities as well.

Administrative Procedures

Clearly, in all these matters there is a common purpose—the improvement of instruction. Equally apparent is the fact that realization of that purpose involves the best efforts both of school and community people.

There is abundant evidence that school boards are, in increasing numbers, recognizing this. Increasingly common is the practice of appointing lay advisory committees, composed of representative community citizens, to help gather facts, interpret them, and propose solutions on major school problems.

Not only that but in recent years it has become more and more common for school boards to develop administrative codes or rules and regulations, in printed or mimeographed form, setting forth not only board functions and operating procedures but also indicating the scope of responsibility of employees of the school system. The significance of such codes, when soundly developed, in clarifying relationships and fostering effective working procedures would be difficult to overemphasize. Particularly is this true in school systems beset with growing pains.

Although such administrative matters may seem at first thought rather remotely related to coordinating instructional services, they can set the conditions so that such coordination is greatly facilitated. In fact, a common understanding of the relationships and responsibilities involved can thus be developed and maintained.

Leadership Qualities Required

Even more significant is the expanding role of the superintendent in all these activities. There is abundant evidence that the superintendent's position is increasing in scope and complexity, that it involves far more than the technical aspects of school administration, and that it most directly and intimately is concerned with community as well as school leadership. Equally revealing of its true nature is the degree to which it is concerned with developing wholesome relationships among school staff members, of fostering cooperative undertakings to improve the school program.

Growing school systems put the exercise of such leadership qualities to a severe test. Ways must be found to extend the vision to involve community people in planning for better schools. School boards must be encouraged in setting their sights high, in taking a realistic view of the kinds of education services needed. Ways must be found to secure the services of specialized personnel, whether provided by the local or the intermediate district. Procedures must be established so these specialists function as a team, working through school principals in helping classroom teachers. Relationships have to be established so that school principals truly become instructional leaders for their schools, and are encouraged to improve their leadership. Opportunities must be provided for active participation of teachers in the processes of improving instructional services.

That the roles of instructional supervisors and other specialized personnel are likewise undergoing change there can be little doubt. As schools become larger and principals are made full-time instructional leaders, instead of head teachers with part-time principalship duties relating to routine details of school management, the role of the supervisor can properly assume new proportions. Working with the principal brings new opportunities to function as a consultant, available on call. Emphasis is placed on making supervision a helping teacher service, provided when needed and never imposed.

The same holds true for other specialized services, whether provided directly by larger districts or by the county. In either case, the emphasis is on service to schools. The people who provide the services are resource people. They supplement resources in the school in ways that will help principals and teachers become more, not less, self-sustaining.

This places a premium on the development of readiness among teachers and principals to utilize these specialized resources, whether from the county or local superintendent's staff. Only when teachers and principals have developed a readiness for them can they become really effective in improving the conditions for teaching and learning. Perhaps there is no single characteristic that reveals more about a resource person's leadership qualities than his ability to cultivate this readiness.

Cooperative Effort To Improve the Nation's School Statistics

In A RECENT LETTER to all chief State school officers, Samuel Miller Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education, described plans for full application by the Office of Education of *The Common Core of State Educational Information*.¹ This Handbook lays the basis for improving the comparability of statistical reports on staff, students, income, expenditures, organization, transportation, school lunch program, etc., of elementary, secondary, and adult education, with reference particularly to reports by State departments of education.

The Common Core, which is Handbook I of the State Educational Records and Reports Series, was developed by the cooperative efforts of State departments of education, numerous national associations concerned with education, and the Office of Education.

The Handbook does two things. It presents a list of items of information upon which there should be available strictly comparable information from all of the various States. The same items of information constitute an acceptable basis for a nationwide report on the status and condition of education.

Perhaps an example of an item of statistical information is in order. It has been agreed that comparable statistics should be collected on the number of one-teacher schools in each State. Further it has been agreed that this item should be broken down so that the report specifies the number of such schools with four or fewer grades and, also, the number with five or more grades. Thus *The Common Core* lists two items of statistical information which are to be collected with respect to the number of one-teacher schools in a given State.

In addition, the Handbook defines the terms that are usually employed in describ-

ing and reporting on those items of information. Thus according to the definition of *The Common Core*, a school with just one teacher is a "one-teacher school" regardless of the number of rooms in the building. The Handbook further makes it clear that in counting the number of grades it is not necessary to have pupils enrolled in a given grade in the year being reported to count the grade. Thus a school with one teacher, two rooms, and grades 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, would be counted as a "one-teacher school with five or more grades," regardless of the fact that there might be no children in grades 3 and 4.

Because it gives a standard list of items of statistical information which all States should have available and because it defines the terms involved in their collection, the Handbook provides the means by which a greater measure of comparability can be secured than has heretofore been possible.

In his letter, Commissioner Brownell also outlined the steps being taken by the Office of Education to do its part in implementing *The Common Core*. As a first step, the Office will adapt its questionnaire form for the biennial survey to the items of *The Common Core*. Because not all of the States will be in a position immediately to provide information on all of the items of the Handbook, not all of the items are included in the biennial survey form to be distributed by the Office of Education this year. Only those items similar in content

to the items of previous biennial survey forms, plus items commonly available in the State departments, will be found in this form. The form for the year ending June 30, 1956, however, will include all the items of the Handbook, except where the information would duplicate the information supplied to other Federal agencies.

In addition, the Office of Education will collect and publish statistics on the nine items of information recommended by the Handbook for a quick report in the fall of each school year. The forms for this report, which will be distributed during the first week of October, will request information on (1) the number of pupils, (2) the number of teachers, (3) the number of teachers with substandard credentials, (4) the number of pupils in excess of the normal capacity of the school buildings in use, and (5) the total number of instruction rooms scheduled for completion during the current fiscal year. Except for the last item, this breakdown will be used for elementary schools and separately for secondary schools.

The statistical reports of the Office of Education can be no better than the basic reports received from the States. The Handbook outlines the essentials for a nationwide statistical reporting system in the field of education which, given common application and implementation, should yield information of greater accuracy and completeness than in the past.

NEWBERY-CALDECOTT AWARDS

THE NEWBERY MEDAL for the most distinguished contribution in 1953 to American literature for children was awarded to Joseph Krumgold for *And Now Miguel* (Crowell). The Caldecott Medal was presented to Ludwig Bemelmans for his *Madeline's Rescue* (Viking), the most distinguished picture book for children published in 1953. Both medals were officially presented at the Newbery-Caldecott Dinner in Minneapolis, June 22, 1954.

¹ U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *The Common Core of State Educational Information*, Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953. (State Educational Records and Reports Series: Handbook I, Bulletin 1953, No. 8.) 35 cents.

White House Library Receives 100 Great Books

PRESIDENT EISENHOWER recently received a collection of the Great Books, which comprise the heart of the liberal arts program at St. John's College of Annapolis, Md.

The books, numbering more than 100, will be added to the White House Library. They were presented to the President in his office by Theodore R. McKeldin, Governor of Maryland, a St. John's board member; Richard F. Cleveland, chairman of the college's board of visitors; and Richard D. Weigle, president of the 258-year-old school.

Through its Great Books curriculum, Dr. Weigle told the President, "this little college in Annapolis has been pioneering a return

to the traditional liberal arts of thinking, analyzing, judging, and communicating which marked the education of great public men in the early years of this Republic.

"These books are truly our heritage as western men. Each is a masterpiece, exemplifying those very liberal arts of thought and imagination. Each deals with some great theme of human experience as valid now as in the days when it was written—the wisdom of Socrates, the plays of Shakespeare, the eternal verities of the Bible, the political lessons of the Constitution and

the Federalist Papers. These books provide a continuing stimulus to our thinking and a constant challenge to more imaginative living."

St. John's has sought to restore to American higher education a modern equivalent of the liberal arts once studied at the college by colonial leaders. Founded as King William's School in 1696, the college is now independent, nonsectarian, and coeducational.

Francis Scott Key, author of "The Star-Spangled Banner," founded the St. John's



100 GREAT BOOKS

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Alumni Association. George Washington's stepson was also a student. Four signers of the Declaration of Independence were members of its first board of visitors and governors.

St. John's launched its single, 4-year, nonelective curriculum in 1937, Dr. Weigle said, as an answer to the increasing specialization in higher education which made it more and more difficult for young Americans to acquire a real liberal arts education. The St. John's program, stressing seminar discussions and individual understanding, has since widely influenced higher educators.

More than half of the St. John's students enter graduate and professional schools. A recent survey found graduates of the "new" program forging ahead in business, industry, and the professions.

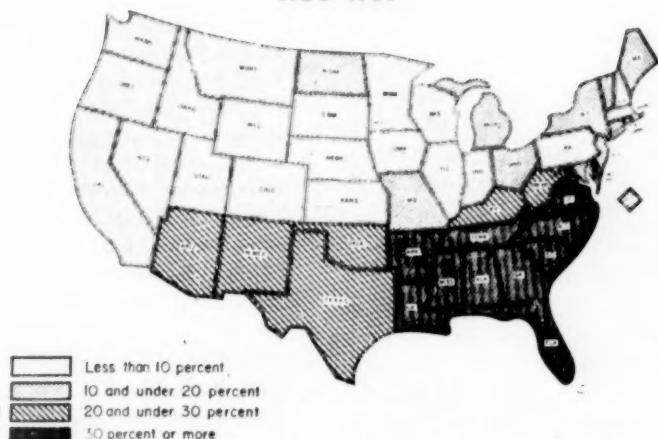
Education of Negroes

(Continued from page 135)

Illiteracy is a constant, underlying many of the economic, social, and cultural problems of Negroes. The greatest incidence of poverty, disease, and personal maladjustments in occupational, home, and civic life is found among the illiterates. There is a high correlation between illiteracy and malnutrition, infant and maternal deaths, occupational inefficiency, low-grade employment, and low wages. In short, illiteracy is associated with most of the indices of low cultural and living standards.¹³

¹³ Reece, B. Carroll, "The High Cost of Illiteracy," *School Life*, May 1952, Vol. 34, No. 8, p. 115 ff.

Rejection Rates for Failure to Pass Armed Forces Qualification Test 1950-1951



Source. U. S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Standards. *Armed Forces Rejections During the First Year of Korean War*. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1952.

Although illiteracy is a national problem (see map below), involving all racial and geographic groups,¹⁴ its high incidence among Negroes is emphasized here because of its relevance to the general subject under discussion. Studies¹⁵ have shown a significant relationship between Negro rejection rates (for failure to meet minimum intelligence standards) in World War II and the level of education as represented by expenditure per Negro pupil, school attendance, and high school enrollment.

Relation of Schooling and Environmental Factors and Test Results

Many studies¹⁶ have presented strong evidence that there is a significant relationship between inadequate schooling and certain environmental factors, and scores attained on mental tests. For example, Negroes in general make lower scores than whites in the South, but Negroes in the North, by and large, make a higher score than whites in the South. Their rejection rates are somewhat higher than those of whites in the States where they attend the same school. This is accounted for by the fact that even in these States frequently there has been some difference in the schooling received, as well as by the fact that Negroes usually participate in the culture at a lower level than the whites.¹⁷

¹⁴ Calver Ambrose, *Literacy Education*, Circular No. 376, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C., June 1953.

¹⁵ American Teachers Association, *The Black and White of Rejections for Military Service*, Montgomery, Ala., August 1944, p. 24.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 28-29.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 30.

Klineberg¹⁸ says that "the problem of racial or national differences in mental test scores is closely related to the problem of the effect of socioeconomic factors." He also indicates that environmental changes have an effect upon test scores. There is also the suggestion that the language, speed, and motivation factors also affect the test scores. All these have special relevance to anyone brought up in an impoverished cultural environment. Davenport presents evidence to support this general thesis. He found that among both Negroes and whites a much higher percentage of the inductees from the Fourth Service Command (comprising the Southeastern States) were classified in Grades IV and V on the Army Classification Test. For whites it was 51 percent; for Negroes, 95 percent. The corresponding percentages for the Southwestern States were respectively 45 and 93.¹⁹

The particular relevance to Negroes lies in the excessive extent to which they suffer the handicaps common to all low-economy groups.

The mass movements of these people from rural to urban and from southern to northern areas emphasize the importance of these factors in their educational and cultural adjustment. The social, economic, and scholastic problems which Negroes have faced in the past, and still face, although to a somewhat less degree, pose some important questions: (1) Is there need for defining and clarifying minimum requirements and standards of performance, on the various school levels, so that our increasingly mobile population may not be unnecessarily handicapped? (2) Should remedial programs be planned to assist those children and youth needing help to adjust to the new conditions which many of them will encounter, as they move into new geographic regions, or new school situations? (3) Would it not be the part of wisdom to develop programs of intergroup education in order that administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents might meet the problems with greater knowledge, understanding, appreciation, and good will than many of them at present possess?

These questions have significance not only for the effective educational development of all American children, but also for the improvement of human relations among all our people.

¹⁸ Klineberg, Otto, *Characteristics of the American Negro*, New York: Harper & Bros., Chapter II, 1944.

¹⁹ Davenport, Ray, "Implications of Military Selection and Classification in Relation to Universal Military Service," *Journal of Negro Education*, Vol. XV, No. 4, 1946, p. 585.

Education in Athletics

(Continued from inside front cover)

senior high school. . . . There should be no postseason championship tournaments or games.

Girls should share equally with boys in facilities, equipment, and funds allocated to athletic activities. . . . But girls' athletic activities should not be imitations of those for boys.

The Educational Policies Commission endorses the report of the Joint Committee on Athletic Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High School Age, *Desirable Athletic Competition*, published by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. This report recommends that priority in resources be given to broad programs of instruction for all children, to intraschool activities, and to informal activities such as play days, sports days, and occasional invitational games involving children of two or more schools. The EPC concurs with the Joint Committee in disapproval of interschool competition of a varsity pattern, and similarly organized competition under auspices of other community agencies, for children below the ninth grade.

A similar point of view was upheld by representatives of 30 national educational, medical, and service organizations at the National Conference on Games and Sports for Boys and Girls of Elementary School Age held in Washington, D. C., May 1953. Among the principles agreed upon at that conference are:

Programs of games and sports should be based upon the developmental level of children.

Competition is inherent in the growth and development of the child and depending upon a variety of factors will be harmful or beneficial to the individual.

Adequate competitive programs organized on neighborhood and community levels will meet the needs of these children. State, regional, and national tournaments, bowl, charity, and exhibition games are not recommended for these age groups.

Progress has been made over the years in upgrading athletic practices. Leadership of high-school athletic associations, professional educational organizations, and other groups has played no small part in this development. The pronouncement on athletics of the Educational Policies Commission and the other statements mentioned here are effective augmentation to the efforts of all who wish to put more athletics into education and more education into athletics.

New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)

American Education; An Introduction. By Emma Reinhardt. New York, Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1954. 506 p. \$4.

Audio-Visual Handbook for Teachers. Trenton, N. J., State Department of Education, 1954. 48p. Illus. 50 cents.

Economy Handbook: Economies from A to Z in Planning and Building Schools. Albany, New York State Commission on School Buildings, 1953. 52 p. Illus.

Elementary-School Organization and Administration. By Henry J. Otto. Third edition. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. 719 p. Illus.

Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision. By Fred C. Ayer. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 523 p. \$4.50.

Good Classroom Practices in Business Education. By Delta Pi Epsilon Committee, H. G. Enterline, chairman. Cincinnati, South-Western Publishing Company, 1953. 58 p. Illus. (Monograph 85.)

How To Attend a Conference; How To Get More Out of All Kinds of Conferences. By Dorothea F. Sullivan. New York, Association Press, 1954. 61 p. (The Leadership Library Series.) \$1.

Jets. Prepared as Reading Material in Aviation Education, by Members of the 1953 Production Conference. Washington, D. C., National Aviation Education Council, 1953. 31 p. Illus. Single copy, 50 cents. (Address: NAEC Planning and Advisory Board, 1115 17th St. NW, Washington 6, D. C.)

Learning To Drive Cars With Automatic Transmissions: A Supplement to Sportsmanlike Driving. By Helen K. Knadel. Washington, D. C., American Automobile Association, 1954. 56 p. Illus.

Look to the Sky. A picture book of aviation for boys and girls, with questions to discuss with the children and concepts to be developed by the teacher. Washington, D. C., National Aviation Education Council, 1953. 32 p. Illus. Single copy, 30 cents. (Address: NAEC Planning and Advisory Board, 1115 17th St. NW, Washington 6, D. C.)

A Manual for Determining the Operating Capacity of Secondary-School Buildings. By Marion J. Conrad. Columbus, Ohio, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1954. 28 p.

Modern Administration of Secondary Schools; A Revision and Extension of Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools. By Harl R. Douglass. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1954. 601 p. \$5.

Roofs for the Family; Building a Center for the Care of Children. By Eva Burmeister. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. 203 p. Illus. \$3.25.

Student Personnel Work as Deeper Teaching. Edited by Esther Lloyd-Jones and Margaret Rutledge Smith. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 361 p. \$5.

Teaching Speech in the Secondary School. By Karl F. Robinson. Second edition. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1954. 438 p. \$4.25.

Working Together for Better Schools. By J. Wilmer Menge and Roland C. Faunce. New York, American Book Co., 1953. 149 p. \$2.

Dr. Romaine P. Mackie

S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, has announced the appointment of Dr. Romaine P. Mackie as Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth Section in the Office of Education. Dr. Mackie has served the Office of Education since 1947 as specialist for schools for the physically handicapped. She succeeds Dr. Arthur S. Hill, who recently accepted the position of educational director with the United Cerebral Palsy Association. In earlier years Dr. Mackie taught in the schools of Ohio. She received a B. A. degree from Ohio Wesleyan University, an M. A. degree from Ohio State University, and the Ph. D. degree from Teachers College, Columbia University.

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

The Care of Children in Institutions—A Reading Guide. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1954. Free.

Management and Union Health and Medical Programs. Public Health Service. 1954. \$1.

Nurses—Your Opportunity to Foster Day-to-Day Mental Health. Public Health Service. 1954. 15 cents.

Children. A new professional journal on services for children and on child life. Published by the Children's Bureau 6 times a year. Volume 1, Number 1 is dated January-February 1954. 25 cents a single copy. Annual subscription price, \$1.25.

Office of Education

Education of Negroes: Segregation Issue Before the Supreme Court. By Ambrose Caliver. Reprint from *School Life*, February 1954. Free.

Education of Negroes: Progress and Present Status in the Segregated Pattern. By Ambrose Caliver and Emery M. Foster. Reprint from *School Life*, March 1954. Free.

Good and Bad School Plants in the United States as Revealed by School Facilities Survey. Prepared by James L. Taylor. Special Publication No. 2. 50 cents.

Mathematics Education Research Studies—1953. Prepared by Kenneth E. Brown. Aids for Mathematics Education, Circular No. 377 H, May 1954. Free.

School Life Index—Volume XXXV. October 1952 to June 1953 and Supplement, September 1953. 5 cents.

Scientific and Professional Manpower—Organized Efforts to Improve Its Supply and Utilization. By Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 394, April 1954. Free.

State Standards for Teaching Our Nation's 5,000,000 Exceptional Children. By Romaine P. Mackie and Lloyd M. Dunn. Reprint from *School Life*, October 1953. Free.

Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. Mahel C. Rice and Walter H. Gammitz. Chapter 5, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52. 1954. 35 cents.

What's Ahead for Educational Television? By Franklin Dunham. Reprint from *School Life*, February 1954. Free.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Agricultural Statistics, 1953. \$2.25.
Home Tanning of Leather and Small Fur Skins, 1954. 15 cents.

Department of Commerce

Weather Is the Nation's Business. A report of the Advisory Committee on Weather Services to the Secretary of Commerce.

Department of Defense

The War Against Japan—Pictorial Record. 1952. Cloth, \$4.

Department of the Interior

Wall Map of the United States, Including Territories and Insular Possessions, Showing the Extent of Public Surveys, National Parks, National Forests, Indian Reservations, National Wildlife Refuges, and Reclamation Projects, 1953. It also shows State boundaries, cities, towns, rivers, and railroads. Insert charts give descriptions of Alaska, Guam, American Samoa, Hawaiian Islands, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, and the Panama Canal Zone. It gives the record of the westward movement from the original 13 States; acquisitions such as the Louisiana Purchase, annexation of Texas, the Gadsden Purchase, the Spanish American Compromise, and Oregon Territory. 2 sheets each 59 x 41 inches, overall dimensions approximately 5 x 7 feet. \$1 per set.

Department of Labor

Occupational Planning and College. Prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor in cooperation with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Higher Education. 1953. 10 cents.

Government Printing Office

For Your Vacation Pleasure. A Superintendent of Documents price list of selected Government publications describing popular national parks, forests, and historical sites. Free.

House of Representatives

Foreign Economic Policy of the United States. Message from the President of the United States, transmitting recommendations concerning the foreign economic policy of the United States. House Document 360, 1954. 10 cents.

Post Office Department

Postage Stamps of the United States, 1847–1953. A comprehensive review of all United States postage stamps from the first adhesive stamp, issued in 1847, through the new 6-cent airmail stamp commemorating the 50th anniversary of powered flight and others in circulation as of June 30, 1953. 65 cents.

United States Senate

Review of the United Nations Charter. Senate Document No. 87, 83d Cong., 2d Sess. 1954. \$2.50.



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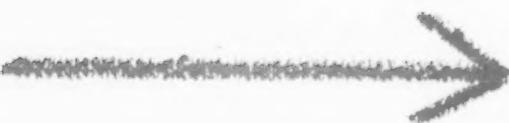
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